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IDEAS

**EMPLOYEE-MANAGEMENT
COOPERATION**

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Employees have as clear a right to organize and select their representatives for lawful purposes as the respondent has to organize its business and select its own officers and agents Labor organizations . . . were organized out of the necessities of the situation; that a single employee was helpless in dealing with an employer; . . . that union was essential to give laborers opportunity to deal on an equality with their employer. . . . Collective action would be a mockery if representation were made futile by interference with freedom of choice. . . . The obligation to treat with the true representative is exclusive and hence imposes the negative duty to treat with no other.

--Majority Opinion, United States Supreme Court*

*NLRB v. Jones & Laughlin Steel Corp., 301 U.S. 1, 6-10 (1937). Taken from Collective Bargaining in the Federal Civil Service by Wilson R. Hart, published by Harper & Brothers, New York, 1961.

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IDEAS

EMPLOYEE-MANAGEMENT COOPERATION

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W H Y T H I S S T A F F P A P E R

As the title indicates, this is an IDEA book: some basic concepts, some background facts, some suggestions on method.

The material is intended to provide USDA management with both stimulus and help in fashioning a frame of reference and a practical approach in the field of employee-management relations. The special need for doing this at this time has, of course, been brought about by the new policies enunciated by the President in Executive Order 10988.

You will note that the material is all taken from other sources. Our only contribution is that of choice and arrangement. While there is a rough logic in the ordering of the matter quoted, construction of the frame of reference mentioned in the preceding paragraph is strictly a "do-it-yourself" project. This may be done in connection with some of the Department's management training programs (e.g. SIMM and SED); it may also be done on your own.

While, as indicated, the paper is aimed primarily at line management, it may also be of interest and value to specialists in employee-management relations and to leaders of employee organizations. We hope so.



Robert L. Hill, Employee-
Management Relations Officer



Carl B. Barnes
Director of Personnel

PHILOSOPHICAL AND
SOCIOLOGICAL
ORIENTATION

REASON IN SOCIETY*

We have seen that the family, an association useful in rearing the young, may become a means of further maintenance and defense. It is the first economic and the first military group. Children become servants, and servants, being adopted and brought up in the family, become like other children and supply the family's growing wants. It was no small part of the extraordinary longing for progeny shown by patriarchal man that children were wealth, and that by continuing in life-long subjection to their father they lent prestige and power to his old age. The daughters drew water, the wives and concubines spun, wove, and prepared food. A great family was a great estate. It was augmented further by sheep, goats, asses, and cattle. This numerous household, bound together by personal authority and by common fortunes, was sufficient to carry on many rude industries. It wandered from pasture to pasture, practised hospitality, watched the stars, and seems (at least in poetic retrospect) to have been not unhappy. . . .

. . . . Whenever agriculture yields better returns and makes the husbandman rich enough to support a protector, patriarchal life disappears. The fixed occupation of land turns a tribe into a state. Plato has given the classic account of such a passage from idyllic to political conditions. Growth in population and in requirements forces an Arcadian community to encroach upon its neighbors; this encroachment means war; and war, when there are fields and granaries to protect, and slaves and artisans to keep at their domestic labours, means fortifications, an army, and a general. And to match the army in the field another must be maintained at home, composed of judges, priests, builders, cooks, barbers, and doctors. Such is the inception of what, in the literal sense of the word, may be called civilisation.

Civilisation secures three chief advantages: greater wealth, greater safety, and greater variety of experience. Whether, in spite of this, there is a real--that is, a moral--advance is a question impossible to answer offhand, because wealth, safety, and variety are not absolute goods, and their value is great or small according to the further values they may help to secure.

For the Life of Reason, however, civilisation is a necessary condition. . . . Wealth, safety, variety of pursuits, are all requisite if memory and purpose are to be trained increasingly, and if a steadfast art of living is to supervene upon instinct and dream.

*Excerpts (pps. 60-69) from Reason in Society, being Vol. II of the Life of Reason: or the Phases of Human Progress, by George Santayana, former Professor of Philosophy, Harvard University. Publ. by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1905. Currently available in paperback edition, Collier AS 171.

Wealth is itself expressive of reason for it arises whenever men, instead of doing nothing or beating about casually in the world, take to gathering fruits of nature which they may have uses for in future, or fostering their growth, or actually contriving their appearance. Such is man's first industrial habit, seen in grazing, agriculture, and mining. Among nature's products are also those of man's own purposeless and imitative activity, results of his idle ingenuity and restlessness. Some of these, like nature's other random creations, may chance to have some utility. They may then become conspicuous to reflection, be strengthened by the relations which they establish in life, and be henceforth called works of human art. They then constitute a second industrial habit and that other sort of riches which is supplied by manufacture.

The amount of wealth man can produce is apparently limited only by time, invention, and the material at hand. It can very easily exceed his capacity for enjoyment The machinery to produce wealth, of which man's own energies have become a part, may well work on irrespective of happiness. Indeed, the industrial ideal would be an international community with universal free trade, extreme division of labour, and no unproductive consumption. Such an arrangement would undoubtedly produce a maximum of riches, and any objections made to it, if intelligent, must be made on other than universal economic grounds. Free trade may be opposed, for instance (while patriotism takes the invidious form of jealousy and while peace is not secure), on the ground that it interferes with vested interests and settled populations or with national completeness and self-sufficiency, or that absorption in a single industry is unfavourable to intellectual life. The latter is also an obvious objection to any great division of labour, even in liberal fields; while any man with a tender heart and traditional prejudices might hesitate to condemn the irresponsible rich to extinction, together with all paupers, mystics, and old maids living on annuities.

Such attacks on industrialism, however, are mere skirmishes and express prejudices of one sort or another. The formidable judgment industrialism has to face is that of reason, which demands that the increase and specification of labour be justified by benefits somewhere actually realised and integrated in individuals. Wealth must justify itself in happiness. Someone must live better for having produced or enjoyed these possessions. And he would not live better, even granting that the possessions were in themselves advantages, if these advantages were bought at too high a price and removed other greater opportunities or benefits man must not work so hard and burden himself with so many cares as to have no breath or interest left for things free and intellectual.

Work and life too often are contrasted and complementary things; but they would not be contrasted nor even separable if work were not servile, for of course man can have no life save in occupation, and in the exercise of his faculties; contemplation itself can deal only with what practice contains or discloses. But the pursuit of wealth is a pursuit of instruments. The division of labour when extreme does violence to natural genius and obliterates natural distinctions in capacity. What is properly called industry is not art or self-justifying activity, but on the contrary a distinctly compulsory and merely instrumental labour, which if justified at all must be justified by some ulterior advantage which it secures. In regard to such instrumental activities the question is always pertinent whether they do not produce more than is useful, or prevent the existence of something that is intrinsically good.

Occidental society has evidently run in this direction into great abuses, complicating life prodigiously without ennobling the mind. It has put into rich men's hands facilities and luxuries which they trifle with without achieving any dignity or true magnificence in living, while the poor, if physically more comfortable than formerly, are not meantime notably wiser or merrier. Ideal distinction has been sacrificed in the best men, to add material comforts to the worst. Things, as Emerson said, are in the saddle and ride mankind. The means crowd out the ends and civilisation reverts, when it least thinks it, to barbarism. . . .

Wealth is excessive when it reduces a man to a middleman and a jobber, when it prevents him, in his preoccupation with material things, from making his spirit the measure of them. There are Nibelungen who toil underground over a gold they will never use, and in their obsession with production begrudge themselves all holidays, all concessions to inclination, to merriment, to fancy; nay, they would even curtail as much as possible the free years of their youth, when they might see the blue, before rendering up their souls to the Leviathan. . . .

Both the sordidness and the luxury which industrialism may involve, could be remedied, however, by a better distribution of the product. The riches now created by labour would probably not seriously debauch mankind if each man had only his share; and such a proportionate return would enable him to perceive directly how far his interests required him to employ himself in material production and how far he could allow himself leisure for spontaneous things--religion, play, art, study, conversation. . . .

FAMILISTIC, CONTRACTUAL, AND COMPULSORY RELATIONSHIPS*

In spite of the infinite variety of the patterns of social relationships of man to man, or of group to group, they all fall into three main classes: familistic relationships, permeated by mutual love, devotion, and sacrifice; free contractual agreements of the parties for their mutual advantage, devoid either of love or of hatred, but profitable to both; and compulsory relationships imposed by one party upon the others, contrary to their wishes and interests.

The familistic relations are most frequently found among the members of a devoted family or among real friends. In such contacts the individual ego is merged in the sense of "we." Joys and sorrows are shared in common. The individuals need one another, seek one another, love one another, and gladly sacrifice themselves for one another--in brief, they represent a single solidary body. This is the supreme and noblest type of social relationship, a real consortium omnis vitae, divini et humani juris communicatio. In such a unity a special contract, with its prescription "no more and no less," becomes superfluous. Unlimited, all-embracing, all-forgiving and all-bestowing mutual devotion renders unnecessary any contract, with its limitations and reservations.

In contrast to the familistic relation, the contractual relationship is limited and specified. It does not cover the whole life of the parties, but only one narrow sector, such as a contract between employer and employee, buyer and seller, or plumber and householder. Contracts tend to specify carefully the rights and duties of each party: "fifteen cents for a package of cigarettes" or "fifteen dollars a week for forty hours of honest work."

Within the circumscribed sphere of the voluntary contract the contracting parties are solidary. But this solidarity is somewhat egotistical: it does not spring from spontaneous devotion, but from a desire to obtain some advantage--pleasure, profit, utility, or the like--rooted in a sober calculation of advantage. In this sense it is utilitarian and self-centered.

*Excerpts (pps. 167-69 and 176) from The Crisis of Our Age, by P. A. Sorokin, University of Minnesota, 1923-30, organizer and chairman, Department of Sociology, Harvard University, 1931-55. Book first published 1941 by E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York; now available as a Dutton paperback, D 10.

Not infrequently a contracting party tries to get from the other as much as possible for as little as possible--as good a bargain as the other will agree to. Otherwise the parties remain strangers to one another, one party being little interested in the well-being, activities, and outlook of the others. The contractual relation does not fuse them into a homogenous "we," animated by a sense of mutual love, devotion, and sacrifice. Each person or group remains egocentric and individualistic. Such is the second fundamental form of social relationship. Though not so noble as the familistic type, it has at least the merit of constituting a voluntary agreement of free parties for their mutual benefit.

Finally, many human relations are compulsory, imposed by one party upon another coercively, contrary to its wishes and desires. Antagonism and hatred, not love and solidarity, are the binding cement. One of the parties is the victim and prey of the other. It is exploited, degraded, cruelly treated, deprived of many of its rights. It is not regarded as a free and sacred human entity. It becomes a mere instrument in the hands of the other party. The reaction of the coerced is one of dislike or even hatred. Examples are afforded by the cruel master and his ill-treated slave, the executioner and his victim, the ravisher and the ravished, the conqueror and the conquered. It goes without saying that this is the crudest and worst form of social relationship. (Dynamics, Vol. III, chap. I)

THE RISE OF CONTRACTUALISM IN MODERN SOCIETY

These three forms of relationship have been present in virtually all large societies and groups, but not always in the same proportions. The social relationships of a good family are principally familistic; so also are those of many a religious organization in which God is known as "our Father," the church as "our Mother," and the members as "brethren" or "sisters." On the other hand, the social relations of a prison society, of coercively drafted soldiers, of slaves and serfs, or even of the citizens of a state, with its obligatory and compulsory rules, are essentially compulsory.

The relative proportions of these fibers change in course of time, even in the fabric of the same society

THE CRISIS OF CONTRACTUALISM

. . . Western society . . . forgot that not everything is contractual and arbitrary in any real contract; that to be truly contractual the pact must satisfy four indispensable conditions which must not be changed or eliminated by the contracting parties. They are necessary conditions if a contract is to be really contractual and beneficial to society as well as to the contracting parties themselves. The first of these is that all the contracting parties shall be equally free and independent. A pact entered into under conditions of duress, of open or disguised coercion, ceases to be a contract and represents a compulsory relationship. Second, the freedom of the contracting parties must not be used to the detriment of either a contracting party or--what is more important--to that of society as such. The free contract of a group of murderers to cooperate faithfully in the enterprise of "Murder, Incorporated," becomes a downright menace to society. It imposes upon it the grossest and most harmful coercion. A third indispensable condition is the old Roman stipulation pacta sunt servanda: the contracted duties must be faithfully fulfilled by all the parties concerned. Fourth, one party must not twist the pact to the detriment of any other. Contracts in which the stipulations are not fulfilled by all the parties, or which are misused by one party to exploit another, cease to be a genuine contract and come to represent a disguised compulsory relationship

SOME

EXAMPLES

NORTHERN PACIFIC COAL COMPANY
GENERAL RULES FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF EMPLOYEES
TIMBERLINE AND OTHER MINES*

The following Rules and Regulations are for the government of the employees of the Northern Pacific Coal Company, at Timberline, Montana, and must be strictly adhered to.

The same rules will also govern all employees at any other mines operated by the N. P. Coal Co., so far as the local conditions will permit, and will be in full force on and after September 15, 1885.

Wages

1. The wages of employees at the mines shall be set and regulated by the Superintendent, and the amount due in any one month will be paid on the 25th of the month following.
2. Orders will be given employees on the Company's store and butcher shop for work actually done, for any amount not exceeding the amount actually owing at the time the order is asked for. But no orders will be issued in any month for wages earned in another month nor will any orders be issued on the first three days of any month.

Store Patronage

3. As the Company has gone to the expense and trouble of establishing a store, butcher shop and saloon for the accommodation and convenience of its employees, and as its employees derive their living from the Company, all employees will be expected to patronize these places to the exclusion of all other similar establishments or peddlers.

Sobriety, Regularity

4. Employees will be expected to be sober and orderly at all times. No drunken rows or carousing will be tolerated.
5. All employees must be at work promptly at the time designated by the Superintendent or Foreman, and remain at work the full allotted time, whether they are paid by the day or by the ton.

House Regulations

6. Each employee renting a house from the Company will be required to sign a lease before taking possession of it.

* Taken from Understanding Labor Problems by Dallas M. Young, McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, New York, New York, 1959, pp. 3-5.

16.

7. No one will be allowed to erect a house on the Company's grounds without first having obtained permission from the Superintendent and signing a lease therefor.

8. Every householder will be required to keep his house in good order, and will be charged for any damages done beyond the ordinary wear and tear.

9. He will be required to keep his house neat and clean, both inside and out.

10. Dirty water, slops, ashes or any other substance which will tend to bring about disease or ill health, must be put in a suitable well, to be made for that purpose by the householder. It is strictly forbidden to throw such filth on the ground around the house or on the road in front of it.

11. In case any employe who rents a house is discharged, or of his own accord leaves the Company's employ, he will be required to surrender possession of his house within ten days from the date on which he ceases to be employed. Settlement of his wages or amount due him will not be made until he has moved out of his house.

Animals

12. No one will be allowed to keep pigs without carefully penning them up. If allowed to run at large they will be put in pound and a charge made before they will be given back to the owner.

13. No one will be allowed to keep a vicious dog.

Strike, Labor Societies

14. Any employe joining any secret labor organization or in any way taking part in any strike, or for any cause refusing to perform work assigned to him at any time, unless satisfactory excuse for same is made to the Superintendent or Foreman; or who shall be under the influence of intoxicating liquors while at work, or who shall be incapacitated for work by the use of liquor, will at once be discharged; and under no circumstance will anyone so discharged be re-employed.

Hospital Regulations

15. Single men will be required to pay one dollar per month, and married men one dollar and a half per month toward the hospital fund.

16. This amount will procure for single men and married men and their families, medical attendance and medicines for all ordinary diseases and accidents occurring on the property of the Company, or while engaged in working for them, but will not include venereal diseases, childbirth, or treatment of any chronic diseases contracted previous to coming into camp, or any accidents which are clearly due to negligence or carelessness on the part of the patient.

17. Fee for childbirth shall be fifteen dollars.

18. Fees for gonorrhea shall be fifteen dollars in ordinary cases, and, in cases requiring the use of instruments, the charge shall be according to the work done.

19. The charge for visits for all cases not included as above, shall be one dollar and fifty cents; and in all such cases there shall be a moderate charge for medicines.

20. The hospital fund will not pay any board to furnish anything except attendance and medicines.

21. The full amount will be collected for each man each month, whether he works a full month or only part of a month.

22. Employes of the company, who intend to call the Company's physician in cases of childbirth, are requested to notify him a month in advance, so that he can keep a record of the case and not be absent from the camp when his services are required.

Violations

23. In case of a violation of any of these rules by any employe, for the first offense it will be at the option of the Superintendent whether the party offending shall pay a fine of five dollars or be laid off from his work for one week.

24. For the second offense the employe offending will be discharged. These rules will be in full force after date. Ignorance of them will not be accepted as an excuse for their violation.

H. E. Graham, Superintendent

Approved:

Logan M. Bullitt, Vice-President
St. Paul, September 15th, 1885

THE PULLMAN CASE

Several years ago the maker of Pullman cars decided to build a model community. He planned a city with spacious avenues and parks, with model churches, schools, concert halls, and attractive homes. Everything which money could buy was lavished on this particular locality. George Pullman thought that his workers were grateful to him and that they would live in peace and contentment in this town which he had so magnificently provided for them. His managers and superintendents carried to him stories of gratitude and content.

Suddenly a strike broke out at Pullman. Hundreds of workers defied the Pullman officials and refused to work. I found that the descriptions which I had read of the physical equipment of the town had not been too highly colored. At the same time, I found the most discontented and bitter inhabitants that I had ever met. The burden of their complaint was not expressed in terms of wages or hours of labor nor any other physical standard. The worst grievance seemed to be voiced in the assertion that they were treated like children, not like men and women. The most telltale bit of evidence I discovered was the current sneer: "We are born in a Pullman house, taught in a Pullman school, confirmed in a Pullman church, exploited in a Pullman shop, and when we die we'll be buried in a Pullman grave and go to a Pullman hell!"*

*Taken from Labor Attitudes and Problems, by Willard E. Atkins, A.M., J.D., Assoc. Prof. of Econ., Univ. of N. Carolina; and Harold D. Lasswell, Dept. of Political Science, Univ. of Chicago; published by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1924, p. 18.

ADMINISTRATIVE CODE: RELATIONS BETWEEN
TVA AND EMPLOYEE ORGANIZATIONS*

This policy was approved by the Board of Directors on February 24, 1953 (Revision).

It is recognized that both employees and management have important responsibilities in carrying out the work of TVA. It is also recognized that the success of TVA's program depends to a large degree on the mutual understanding and unity of purpose between employees and management. Such understanding and unity can best be maintained if employees and management share in forming and administering the personnel policies and rules which govern the relations between them and if there is ease of communication between them. Responsible unions designated by employees to represent them make it possible for employees to participate more effectively in this task. These organizations also provide a ready means of communication between employees and management. For these reasons TVA encourages its employees to join such organizations and has provided for collective bargaining and negotiation of agreements between these organizations and management on matters affecting employee-management relations.

Agreements between management and employees recognize that TVA as an agency of the Government of the United States of America is accountable to such Government and must operate within the limits of legally delegated authority and responsibility.

The greatest thing about TVA is . . . morale. Never in the United States or abroad have I encountered anything more striking than the faith its men have in their work.--John Gunther**

*Taken from Personnel Policy in a Public Agency, the TVA Experience, by Harry L. Case, published by Harper & Brothers, New York, 1955, p. 128.

**The Story of TVA (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951), p.8; also, Inside U.S.A. (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951). p. 825.

ORGANIZATIONS
IN PUBLIC
SERVICE

Collective Bargaining in Public Service

By STERLING D. SPERO *

THE most significant changes in employer-employee relationships in the United States are taking place in the government services. These services now employ over 8,800,000 persons or about one-eighth of the nation's labor force. At the end of World War II public employment accounted for 6,000,000. Federal employment has remained practically stationary since 1946; the great growth since that date has taken place in state and local employment which has grown from 3,560,000 to 6,380,000. State employment has increased from 800,000 to 1,600,000 and local government employment from 2,760,000 to 4,795,000.

This growth has not only had an impact upon the public payroll, which has trebled in the past 16 years, but also upon the attitudes of both the employees and their government employers. In the days when the public services were comparatively small and simple governments had no difficulty in determining working conditions by legislation. But today when the services are large and complex the old method no longer suffices.

The legislature is finding it increasingly necessary to delegate authority over personnel matters to administrative officials who must exercise their powers either unilaterally and autocratically or cooperatively in consultation with the employees concerned. This has led to a growing demand for collective bargaining to balance the power of the administrator and to give the employees as direct a voice as possible in the determination of their working conditions.

Traditionally the public authorities have resisted demands for collective bargaining. The roots of their opposition lie in the theory of the sovereign state under which government as the custodian of ultimate authority in the community must exercise the right of final decision in all matters affecting its relations with its servants. Collective bargaining, its opponents insist, presupposes an equality between the parties to the public employment relationship which conflicts with the claims of the sovereign employer and runs counter to the "nature of the state."

Becoming Accepted

Nevertheless, collective bargaining in the American government services is growing to such an extent that it promises to become an accepted employee-management procedure.

Now over 400 local governments and state agencies have collective agreements with their employing authorities. The municipal jurisdictions involved range from particular departments in small towns to city-wide systems in some of the largest cities including Cincinnati, Philadelphia and New York. The federal government's Tennessee Valley Authority has had signed agreements with

its organized employees since 1940. The U.S. Department of the Interior has similar contracts in its large industrial undertakings including the Alaska Railroad and Bonneville Power Administration.

These accomplishments did not come about easily. Government has traditionally resisted collective bargaining with its staff on legalistic grounds. President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared in a letter to Luther C. Steward, president of the National Federation of Federal Employees, in 1937:

"...The process of collective bargaining as usually understood, cannot be transplanted into the public service. . . The very nature and purposes of government make it impossible for administrative officers to represent fully or bind the employer in mutual discussions with government employee organizations. . ."

Many government administrators have seized upon this statement as proof that collective bargaining in government agencies was "impossible." Yet, three years after he made this statement, President Roosevelt in dedicating a dam of the Tennessee Valley Authority praised "the splendid new agreement between organized labor and the TVA," adding that "collective bargaining and efficiency have proceeded hand-in-hand."

The key words in the President's 1937 statement were "collective bargaining as usually understood." There are indeed important legal differences between the employer-employee relationship in public and private employment, but the advances which collective bargaining are making in the government services indicate that public employing authorities who wish to do so can accommodate their policies to these differences.

State's Dual Role

The fundamental difference lies in the dual role of the state as employer and sovereign. This is demonstrated in the TVA collective agreement which declares:

"The parties recognize that TVA is an agency of and is accountable to the government of the United States of America. Therefore TVA must operate within the limits of its legally delegated authority and responsibility."

This reservation has not interfered with the contents of the agreement itself which is hardly distinguishable from a labor agreement in private industry. The law after all is not a straight jacket but an instrument of orderly change. Conscientious public employing officials have had no difficulty where the will was present in accommodating their personnel practices to the technical requirements of the law.

*

Sterling D. Spero is Professor of Public Administration at New York University.

There is a popular notion that the right to strike constitutes the essence of collective bargaining and that since this right is denied by law or practice in government service, therefore, no true bargaining relationship can exist. The error here is the assumption that there is only one type of collective bargaining, namely that which has developed in private industry.

The fact is that the strike is not a realistic weapon in government service. It is true that strikes have occurred. It is also true that anti-strike legislation has proved no barrier to such occurrence when the employees believed that they had grievances sufficient to warrant their taking the risks. Most government employee strikes, however, have been strike-demonstrations rather than strikes in the industrial sense. Seldom have public employees in the United States left their jobs and remained out until the issues were settled. With few exceptions, chiefly in the school systems and in public works departments, government employee strikes have been affairs of a day or two to demonstrate solidarity and potential power in order to force political settlements rather than to bring economic power to bear.

Public employees have an effective substitute for the strike in their political powers. Pressure on public officials which might ultimately affect their jobs gives public employee organizations a leverage which has proved a workable substitute for the strike. Political pressure is not only used directly on administrators through publicity, demonstrations, broadcasts, and organized protests but also by bringing legislative and party pressure to bear on them. In addition, there is always the ultimate appeal to the legislature for redress through legislation.

The most advanced collective bargaining in the government service takes place, as noted, in quasi-autonomous services of an industrial character like the Tennessee Valley Authority and the operations of the Department of the Interior.

In recent years, the most significant advances have been taking place in municipal employment. Perhaps the most outstanding example is Philadelphia, where a history of virtual bargaining relations has existed between the city government and the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (AFL-CIO) for over 20 years. In 1958, the city signed a contract with the Philadelphia council of the federation representing ten affiliated local unions.

The contract sets up three categories of employees. It provides for a modified union shop affecting some 12,000 employees who are obliged to join the union as a condition of employment. It covers 4,800 on a voluntary basis and excludes 1,200 from union membership. Although each department or other employing agency is regarded as a bargaining unit, its jurisdiction is obviously limited to matters under its direct control.

City-wide issues such as wages and basic working conditions are dealt with on a city-wide basis with the personnel director,

under authorization from the Civil Service Commission, acting as the city's negotiator. Legal requirements are met by subjecting the contract to the City Council and the Civil Service Commission for final approval since the budget and civil service regulations are involved.

New York City in 1958, by executive order of the Mayor, adopted collective bargaining as the method for conducting its labor relations. Exclusive recognition is provided where a majority of the employees "in a grouping or units appropriate for such purposes" designates its bargaining representative under the supervision of the City Department of Labor which exercises functions similar to those of the State or National Labor Relations Board in private employment.

Negotiations on matters within the jurisdiction of the employing agency take place between the bargaining agent and the agency authorities. Most issues effecting working conditions are negotiated with the Budget Director and the Director of Personnel.

Many of the devices developed in private employment are being projected into the public service. These include the recognition of an exclusive bargaining agent where the bargaining process affects basic conditions of work. The check-off of union dues is now widely provided. Sometimes the expense of administering the check-off is borne by the union. But it is often borne jointly or by the employing authority.

Impartial grievance procedures are now a usual feature of public personnel machinery. In industry, grievances arising under the collective agreement are resolved through arbitration by impartial third parties. In government, such arbitration becomes complicated by the problem of administrative discretion which is delegated by law to the employing official. It is possible, of course, to meet this problem by statutory provision for arbitration. The legislature may vest the arbitrator with specific functions making him in effect a government official or it may vest certain arbitral powers in some government officers as, for example, the Tennessee Valley Authority Act vests certain arbitral powers in the Secretary of Labor.

The usual practice is to provide for advisory arbitration under which awards are made as recommendations to the employing officer, who retains the legal right to accept or reject them. This preserves the forms of the law but for all practical purposes makes the award binding, for it is very difficult for an employing official to ignore an impartial decision.

Compulsory arbitration has often been suggested as a means of settling government service disputes. The difficulty with compulsory arbitration is that it becomes a standing invitation to the parties to dump their problems into the arbitrator's lap instead of trying to settle them by agreement.

Compulsory arbitration has been tried in the Canadian municipal services with so little success in some cases that the local

governments concerned have actually recommended the recognition of the right to strike on the ground that the compulsory process led employee organizations to make excessive demands in the belief that they could always be sure to get a good part of them in the settlement.

Mediation, the process in which an impartial party attempts to bring about a voluntary agreement between the negotiating parties has been tried successfully both in government and in industry.

The union shop, under which employees are required to join the union after a given period as a condition of continued employment, although adopted in Philadelphia for certain categories of employees, is not widely used. It runs counter to the conception of the merit system in an open service recruited by competitive civil service examinations. Its use has been largely confined to jurisdictions which have no merit systems.

The most significant of recent advances in public employee-management relations is Executive Order 10988 issued by President Kennedy in January 1962 setting up a system of "Employee-Management Cooperation in the Federal Service." The order recognizes the right of federal employees to organize "without fear of penalty or reprisal." It provides for three types of recognition of employee organizations, "informal, formal and exclusive."

Informal recognition which may be accorded an employee organization which does not meet the requirements for formal or exclusive recognition qualifies such an organization to present its views to appropriate officials on matters concerning its members but does not entitle it to be consulted by the agency in the formulation of personnel or other policies.

Formal recognition entitles an employee organization to be consulted in the "formulation and implementation of personnel policies and practices and matters affecting working conditions that are of concern to its members."

Exclusive recognition entitles an organization "to act for and to negotiate agreements covering all employees in the (bargaining) unit—without discrimination and without regard to employee organization membership."

The order thus lays the basis for the development of collective bargaining in those portions of the federal service which have not thus far engaged in the practice. It will not affect agencies like TVA, the Interior Department's industrial type operations, the

Government Printing Office or similar establishments where collective bargaining has long been in operation. The administration's intention is to encourage greater employee participation in personnel processes in the white collar administrative agencies where it is hoped responsibility over personnel and administrative policy will shift increasingly from the legislature to the executive agencies.

At present, employee organization in these services is a comparatively small and frail structure. Its principle activities have been legislative lobbying and to some extent the handling of individual grievances. Many critics of the President's order look at federal personnel administration as it is presently organized and operated and conclude that the area of agency discretion is so limited that collective bargaining can play but a minor role. Some employee organization officers have become so adept in the uses of existing arrangements that they resist the establishment of new relationships which would compel them to alter their accustomed ways.

The President's order in setting up three types of agency recognition is actually providing for a developmental process under which employee organizations may gradually acquire the experience and strength necessary to their new role as authentic bargaining agents. Some organizations will be ready for exclusive bargaining immediately. Others will be able to build up their representative character through lesser forms of recognition.

In the past, the principal obstacle to the adoption of collective bargaining in the public service has been the tendency to view it as a problem of law rather than a problem of public policy. The overriding power of the state in its sovereign capacity can, it is said, always invalidate any employer-employee agreement. This reduces collective agreements to mere expressions of intention without legally binding character.

Although this may be literally true it overlooks the fact that a decision of public authorities to engage in collective bargaining is a public policy decision—a sovereign act. The government in its capacity as employer enters into collective relations with its employees in order to create a viable system of employee-management relations. It makes agreements not to show that it can overrule them but in order to live them. The essence of public collective bargaining lies not in its form but in the attitude of the parties leading to understandings which they intend to carry out.

NEGOTIATING

PREPARATION FOR NEGOTIATIONS*

I have been asked to speak to you about negotiations. This is a fascinating word. Its meaning is not to be found in its definition. In fact in common with words like honor, love, justice, and marriage, its true meaning is in the experience and can be lost in abstract attempts at definition.

There are, I am sure, several people here who have experience in negotiating some form of labor agreement. I am also sure that their experiences are so varied, one from another, that no two have the same idea of what is involved in consummating a successful agreement.

This being the case, let me begin to discuss what has been called "the art of negotiating" by reflecting on the appropriateness of the word "art." This implies that there exists no standard set of procedures which, if systematically followed, leads inevitably to successful results. Quite the contrary. Each bargaining relationship is a unique situation. Each bargaining relationship is an amalgam forged by the set of personalities, the value systems, the experiences of the bargaining teams.

Harold Davey of Iowa State says that "collective bargaining is a combination of psychology, politics, and poker." I like this description because it connotes the existence of problems over which neither party has control of the remedies. It connotes that bargaining involves knowledge, judgment, and skills. It connotes that bargaining involves attitudes, personality traits, and "climate" (environmental setting).

It is my understanding that you are here to prepare yourself for local negotiations within the framework of the new Executive Order. Of course you want to be successful. What is a good operational definition of success? I suggest to you that success in collective bargaining consists of the building and constant improvement of a constructive relationship.

I am sure someone will want to know what I mean by "constructive relationship." Let me tell you what I mean and what I do not

*Talk given by John J. Flagler, to National Letter Carriers' Conference on Collective Bargaining in the Federal Service, February 16-17, 1963, at the University of Iowa. Mr. Flagler is Program Director of the University of Iowa's Bureau of Labor and Management.

Now, let us consider some specifics. How do you go about preparing for negotiations? There are four major areas of concern here: drafting your proposals, training the negotiating committee, developing membership support, determining strategy and tactics.

1. Drafting your proposals involves a selection of appropriate contract demands and the development of proper supporting fact and argument. How do you decide what to go for in any given negotiations? Actually, your situation is not essentially different from unions in the private sector in this regard. You will need, first of all, a standard--a pattern.

The Steelworkers, for instance, negotiate a master agreement with the steel industry under the direction of the union's wage Policy Committee. Next, negotiations are carried on at the local level to resolve local and regional differences within the framework of the master agreement.

Your circumstance is similar. The chapters communicate their wishes upward to your national bargaining committee. The master contract negotiated at the national level can then set the pattern for local bargaining.

The membership should meet well before the opening of bargaining to approve the proposals, to suggest changes, additions, and eliminations. In point of fact, the local membership has presumably exercised a representative voice in the drafting of the national proposals and their participation in drafting local adjustments is conditioned by the terms of the national agreement. For each proposal you will need to do the research and planning to defend your position, and to be prepared to consider intelligently management counterproposals. The areas where you can expect the strongest resistance should, of course, be the areas where you will want to do the most elaborate preparation.

2. Training the negotiating committee. Each of the committee members should understand what is expected of him and how matters should proceed. He should understand that any disagreement among members should be resolved in caucus, rather than in the presence of the management.

Some unions centralize responsibility heavily in a single spokesman. Others delegate certain issues, or points of discussion, to individual members to introduce and develop. You will need to make your own decision on which system best suits your needs. At a minimum, the members of the committee should be thoroughly versed in the substance of the proposals so as to keep the members informed on the progress of negotiations and to clarify the union's position.

mean. A constructive relationship is not necessarily one that is free of static and frequent disagreement; it is certainly not one where the parties are constantly totaling up their respective "batting averages" or "win-loss columns."

A constructive relationship is one which, first of all, is problem oriented rather than personality centered. A constructive relationship accommodates conflict, it does not submerge disagreement.

Let us see if we can list some of the ingredients which go into the building of a constructive collective bargaining relationship.

1. Mutual Respect. To win respect you will need:

a. Knowledge. Avoid negotiating or processing grievances without adequate preparation. Secure facts. organize your arguments.

b. Skill. You will need the ability to persuade. You will need skill in inter-personal relations. Be willing and able to listen.

c. Judgment. You will need the ability to foresee the future implications of proposals initiated by either party --the ability to judge counterproposals objectively.

d. Courage. You will need to express your arguments forcefully at times, as well as persuasively--most people will respect your convictions if you are willing and able to defend yourself.

2. Problem Oriented Negotiations

a. The worst ingredient in bargaining is the development of personality clashes. To avoid this pitfall, always permit the management representative an opportunity to save face when he accepts your proposal. Avoid any temptation to belittle another's argument or to make rash statements.

b. Start negotiations from areas of common agreement before attempting to resolve areas of dispute.

c. Search out areas of mutual benefit as much as possible.

d. Treat areas of dispute as problems to be mutually resolved rather than points to be debated.

3. Developing membership support. A continuing program of communications with the membership must be initiated before the proposals are taken up for approval. The campaign must be maintained through the completion of negotiations and ratification.

Use of every appropriate media and method should be employed including word of mouth, fact sheets, membership newsletters, the local meeting and posted announcements.

4. Determining strategy and tactics. Decisions should be made on which procedure should be followed, which arguments should be used to justify your proposals, where you are willing to drop a demand, which demands are really critical. In short, you will need a flexible plan or strategy and specific tactical plans to meet your objectives.

Successful negotiations are not based on histrionics, on jockeying for position or colorful debate. Successful collective bargaining results most often from conscientious preparation, patient exploration of possibilities, and mutual respect.

APPRECIATION IS APPRECIATED

Westbrook Pegler came to visit Fields one day, and the two conversed at length on the general subject of vice-presidents. Pegler suggested and Fields agreed, that a movie built around a typical Vice-President of the United States might be funny. They decided to concentrate their research, in the main, on Henry Wallace's speeches. Fields accordingly wrote Wallace a letter asking for copies of some of his speeches, explaining that he had a hobby of filing the public utterances of government officials. In reply, Wallace promptly sent him copies of all the speeches he had made while in office, and added a personal note of the warmest kind. He had always revered Fields' comedy, he said, and hoped that he would have, in the future, as many delightful hours of enjoyment from it as he had had in the past. Thereafter, Fields' attitude toward Wallace and all vice-presidents was guarded. He seemed to lose interest in the project with Pegler, and whenever he heard anybody damn Wallace, he would say, "Well, now, I wouldn't go that far. Mr. Wallace is a highly intelligent man, a sound man in many ways."*

*Taken from W.C. Fields: His Follies and Fortunes, by Robert Lewis Taylor, Doubleday and Co., Inc., Garden City, New York, 1949, p. 276.

TRENDS

WHITE COLLAR AND BLUE COLLAR*

The change in status of white-collar jobs is most sharply reflected, however, in the comparative financial rewards of white- and blue-collar employees. At the turn of the century, a white-collar job commanded twice as much money as a factory job. Today, the unionized blue-collar worker has overtaken and moved ahead of the white-collar worker. Sales workers earn less than craftsmen and foremen who typically have three years less schooling. (The 1950 Census was the first in history to show blue-collar workers surpassing in income a category of white-collar workers.)

The extent of the shift shows up vividly in figures released by the United States Labor Department on wages in seventeen labor markets as of 1956. Male office clerical workers earned a third less than men in "maintenance and powerplant." . . .

The unions have sought, with only modest success, to exploit the growing frustration of clerical and other white-collar workers with such sneering slogans as "You Can't Eat Air Conditioning." Unions feel an urgent need for white-collar recruits because the supply of blue-collar workers, who constitute the great bulk of union membership, is shrinking. John L. Lewis's mine workers' union is one third the size it was in his pre-World War II days of glory and power. Most white-collar people still aspire to rise, and this makes them poor prospects for the unions. Many are caught up in a panic about their status and strain to demonstrate that they are different from the working class. Meanwhile, many lead lives of quiet conformity trying to live like--and to please--their superiors. The most eloquent summation of this feeling of frustration that afflicts many such people was offered some years ago, when times were harder, by George Orwell's salesman, Mr. Bowling, in Coming Up for Air. He states: "There's a lot of rot talked about the sufferings of the working class. I'm not so sorry for the proles myself The prole suffers physically, but he's a free man when he isn't working. But in every one of those little stucco boxes there's some poor bastard who's never free except when he's fast asleep and dreaming that he's got the boss down the bottom of a well and is bunging lumps of coal at him."

*Taken from The Status Seekers, by Vance Packard, published by David McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1959, pp. 35 and 36-39.

While the boundary between white and blue collar is blurring, the boundary between lower and upper white-collar groups is becoming sharp and formidable. (By upper white collar I mean the managers, professional people, etc.) It has become the great dividing line in our society. And it is becoming more formidable every year.

The boundary is formidable because the ticket of admission is steep: a college diploma of some sort. About one in eight youths today has the ticket. More and more, opportunity at the higher levels begins and ends with the choice of education. After one is educated the mold is usually set. Only rarely will a person who begins in a lower white-collar job without a college degree be able to move across the line into the upper group.

Our so-called great "middle class" actually is being split down the middle by this requirement. One of America's leading social theorists, Harvard's Talcott Parsons, states: "Probably the best single index of the line between 'upper middle' class and the rest of the middle class is the expectation that children will have a college education as a matter that is a status right, not because of the exceptional ability of the individual." . . .

Our class system is starting to bear a resemblance to that which prevails in the military services. In the services there are, of course, status differences between a private and a corporal and between a lieutenant and a captain. The great division, however, is between officers and enlisted men, with only quite limited opportunities for acquiring, while in service, the training necessary to pass from one division to the other.

The system of horizontal social strata which I perceive emerging in America is in two great divisions. Within each division there are classes or major bulges. Here appears to be the most graphic way to suggest by generalization the situation that is developing:

THE DIPLOMA ELITE

- I. The Real Upper Class
- II. The Semi-Upper Class

THE SUPPORTING CLASSES

- III. The Limited-Success Class
- IV. The Working Class
- V. The Real Lower Class

The diploma elite consists of the big, active, successful people who pretty much run things. The supporting classes contain the passive non-big people who wear both white and blue collars: the small shopkeepers, workers, functionaries, technical aides.

THE OUTLOOK FOR LABOR UNIONS*

Trade unions and service workers' associations of various kinds will no doubt continue in existence, but under far stricter governmental supervision than at present. The shift of workers out of manufacturing will cause the membership of many unions to decline, but new unions will appear and some old ones will enjoy membership increases. Unions in transportation services will surely enjoy enlarged membership rolls. Among new workers' associations to arise will be those of scientists and upper-echelon technicians. If only to preserve relative economic positions, most members of the labor force will probably belong to some union or craft association. Not to belong, as in the case of teachers in the United States today, is to jeopardize one's economic and social position." (Chap. I, pp. 36-37)

Labor unions, historically now at maximum power, are destined by accelerating, uncounterbalanced trends for a significant reduction in size and influence. While a few here and there may increase in size, they will not increase in power.

Automation, autocomputation, and telemation are all bound to reduce memberships as they eliminate jobs. Even installation workers in many lines will be less in demand as prefabricated parts are increasingly produced by automated machinery.

Unionism is fully effective from a union point of view only where there are concentrations of workers and heavy investments of capital, the managers of which can be coerced by strikes that halt extensive operations. Strikes cause lower returns on capital and often also strike against public convenience and necessity. Where workers are scattered, as among farm laborers at present and as will be the case more and more with the full onset of automation, wide-ranging strikes cannot be made effective. Where workers are few, except in technically sheltered crafts, they can be easily replaced; where places of work are isolated, mass support from sister unions is hard to mobilize. Strikes of many individual service workers and of consumer-appliance repairmen, for example, cannot even now be made very effective as they cannot bring pressure to bear against a single vulnerable point. Their concentrated impact is slight.

*Taken from The Coming World Transformation, by Ferdinand Lundberg, Professor of Social Philosophy, New York University. Published by Doubleday and Co., Inc., Garden City, New York, 1963.

The constant demand of organized labor, constituting about 25 percent of the labor force, for more pay and shorter hours is in fact a prime stimulus toward the installation of automated equipment in search of competitive economy related not only to the domestic but to the world market. The worker, whether he knows it or not, is increasingly a part of the world market, competing more and more with workers of other countries as the latter industrialize. The higher costs are in any given national industrial economy, the more difficult it is for that economy to earn foreign money with which to pay for needed raw materials. If foreign money is bought with domestic money, then foreign purchasing power in the domestic economy is enhanced, driving domestic prices higher and domestic living standards lower.

A few particular unions, sometimes locals confined to one area, whose workers' pay now exceeds that of most university professors and other highly educated professionals, may be able to retain relative positions; but the high pay in such special fields stimulates the search for economies lower down at the expense of less strategically placed unionized workers, whose very jobs may be permanently forfeit.

An illustration of what is meant may be helpful here. Since World War II, building-trades workers in New York City have consistently improved their wages, hours, and working conditions at the expense of real estate investors, tenants, and builders. In part compensation for higher costs of building, the entrepreneurs have successfully sought for lower operating costs in order, necessarily, to provide for proper return of capital. One area of economy was found in the installation of automatic or pushbutton elevators, long banks of which in many buildings once required two or three dozen operators. As new office buildings, apartment houses, and hotels installed automatic elevators, many older buildings, in order to achieve competitive economies, replaced their man-operated elevators with the automatics. The consequence was that thousands of elevator operators, engaged in what was known as vertical transportation, lost jobs they had held for twenty and thirty years and in which they thought they had life tenure. Prior to World War II the union of vertical transportation workers had been able to dictate wages, hours, and working conditions by calling strikes that forced tenants, employees, and customers to walk up thirty to sixty or more flights of stairs. Undefeated in the competitive bargaining arena, they were eventually bypassed by technological development spurred by their demands.

In other contexts similar consequences are possible, the workers of higher skills generating pressures by their demands that cause workers of lower skills to be displaced by automatic apparatus.

People in general, skilled and unskilled, will be far better off in every way when, as, and if full automation is attained. Better instrumentalities enable men more successfully to attain their goals, and what the goals are determines ultimate value. Labor leaders and unionists who look with hostility on automation and wish to impede it are in the same position as the machine-wreckers in the early days of the English Industrial Revolution.

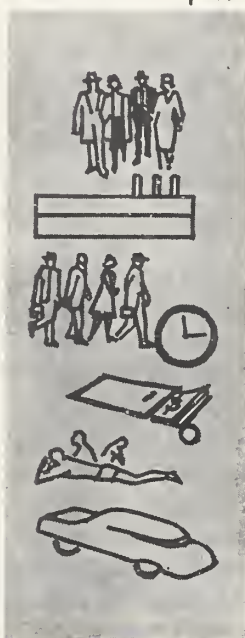
But ultimately unskilled, low-skilled, and so called semiskilled work will command relatively lower wages than at present, although in an economy of true abundance, should disarmament ever make it possible, they may well draw wages higher than at present. Skilled and highly skilled effort will draw premium pay, which will be less the result of union organization than of personal value input made possible with better tools. High productivity either of volume or quality, will be better rewarded than ever.

What all this foreshadows is the gradual slow decline of the labor-union boss. Much of this decline will be seen over the relatively near term, in the next twenty-five years. While the present generation of labor leaders may be little affected, the successor generation will be fully aware of the currents.

There will no doubt continue to be associations of workers. But, gradually replacing the unions we are familiar with, they will encompass workers of higher skill and will be more like the American Medical Association, which is actually run by a succession of elected officers who are skilled practitioners themselves--a different state of affairs from that in which organizational manipulators manage to get for themselves life tenure as bureaucratic heads of large bodies of mostly untutored followers. For all of union talk about democracy, most unions are not democratic; their procedures are rigged to perpetuate officers in their positions until death.

Public sympathy, once extended to organized labor engaged in severe contests with employers, is now swinging the other way as it becomes plain that organized labor is seeking differential advantages at the expense of other members of the labor force and does not hesitate to inconvenience the public by strikes. As the number of trained technical workers increases, enlarging the upper white-collar labor force, there will be further loss of sympathy. With more and more high technology in use, "blue-collar" workers will be increasingly displaced by "white-collar" workers. (Chap. VI pp. 157-159)

U. S. News & World Report



AS PLANNERS SEE IT— THE AMERICA OF 2000 A.D.

PEOPLE IN THE U.S.: 350 million, almost twice as many as today.

TOTAL OUTPUT OF THE NATION (in 1959 dollars): \$2,000 billion, about four times the present level.

JOBHOLDERS: 135 million, about twice today's number.

AVERAGE WORKWEEK: Around 31 hours, about 8 hours less than now.

AVERAGE FAMILY INCOME (after taxes, in 1959 dollars): \$14,750, about double today's income.

PAID VACATIONS: About 4 weeks per year, in major industries — double the present average.

TRAVEL: 11,000 miles a year per person, on the average, nearly triple 1960's pace.

Source: projections for the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission

THE U.S. 37 YEARS FROM NOW—

It's to be a vastly different country by the turn of the century, just 37 years away: nearly twice as many people, producing four times as much, earning far more but working less. All this, and much more, shows up in a new official study.

A nation of 350 million people, turning out four times today's goods and services, working less and playing more, at double today's family incomes—that's the picture of the United States by the end of this century, as drawn in an official report just released in Washington.

Many of the facts, and predictions for the future, that underlie the thinking of planners in this country are made public in a February 5 report, which was compiled for the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission.

By the year 2000, as planners see it, the U.S. will have a 31-hour workweek, month-long paid vacations as the rule, nearly three times as much travel, and 15 times as many families earning \$20,000 a year and up.

Government at all levels, the planners say, probably will be spending 3.5 times as much as now. Yet, because of higher revenues, budgets "will probably be in

approximate balance" and "reductions from current tax rates are likely to develop."

Defense, by 2000 A.D., is expected to be taking a smaller part of resources, though more actual dollars. The big increases in spending will be in education, urban renewal, mass transit.

Business investment in plant and equipment is thought likely to be five times its present level. Electrical machinery is seen as the fastest-growing manufacturing industry.

Spending for housing, the projections suggest, will have tripled, and millions of American families will rent or own second homes.

There may be about 176 million user-operated vehicles—about three times the number of autos now on the road. Some may be air-cushion models, but "any substantial displacement of wheeled autos seems far off, if indeed this will ever occur."

Over all, what they see is a nation enjoying unequalled prosperity by the start of the 21st century, but with twice as many people. That will pose problems.

The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission was an independent group set up by Congress in 1958, under Laurance S. Rockefeller, president of the Rockefeller Brothers Fund. Its main interest was to outline needs for parks and other aids required by a growing

population with increasing time and money on its hands.

The Commission disbanded in September, 1962, but the major economic study made for it has only now been published, as ORRRC Study Report 23. Its projections, including a number from the U. S. Department of Labor and the National Planning Association, are of widespread interest to industries, States, cities and other groups trying to gauge future growth in their areas.

The accompanying chart and map give you some of the highlights from the report, which is available from the Government Printing Office at \$2 a copy. Its findings, in more detail, are these:

Population shifts. In general, the experts expect regional shifts of population to continue in recent patterns, though they predict a gradual tapering off of these changes toward the end of the century.

The basic trend for the coming decades thus is for population to grow fastest on the seacoasts and in the industrial complex bordering the Great Lakes.

Using the middle or "judgment" range of population-growth estimates, the report lists 41 million people in California by 2000 A.D. New York is shown with 29 million by then. Florida almost triples, to 14.6 million people.

Moving of Americans into metropolitan areas also is expected to continue,

U. S. News & World Report

with 71 per cent of the population living in urban areas by the year 2000.

Central cities, rather than suburbs, may become dominant in growth if mass transit and urban-renewal projects are pushed, according to the report. It finds a trend to "in-town living" a definite possibility for upcoming decades.

Some industry trends. For the next 10 to 15 years, the experts figure that jobs in farming and mining will continue to decline; manufacturing will grow at the average growth rate; utilities, trade, construction and services will grow faster than average.

During these years, in manufacturing, above-average expansion is foreseen for electrical machinery, instruments, furniture and fixtures, paper and pulp, printing and publishing, and chemicals.

From about 1976 on—the last quarter of the twentieth century—the outlook is for agriculture to stop declining and ex-

pand a bit, mining to continue to decline, and manufacturing to slip below trade and services in total employment, for the first time in many generations.

The pace of economic growth, in the closing years of the century, is likely to be slower than at present.

On a regional basis, the figures indicate that the New England States, which have been declining in their share of employment, will now "grow in step with the country."

The Great Lakes region is "expected to decline relatively" in its share of national employment. The Far West's share of employment is "expected to increase, but at a slower pace" than in recent years.

Less work, more play. For Americans themselves, three big changes are depicted within the next 37 years: a shorter workweek, higher incomes, and more leisure activities.

The average workweek is projected at 30 to 31 hours by the year 2000, with four weeks of paid vacation and 10 holidays a year the average in major industries. This compares with an average of 39 hours of work a week, two weeks of vacation, and six holidays a year in 1960.

Also, by the year 2000, almost two families out of every three—60 per cent—are expected to have incomes above \$10,000 a year in terms of 1959 dollars. Fourteen per cent had incomes that high in 1957, for example.

With more free time, sharply higher incomes, and innovations such as larger and faster planes and perhaps even automated highways, Americans will be taking cross-country trips for a week-end, the experts believe.

That's just a sample of the country, and the times, they see ahead—less than 40 years from now.

POPULATION GROWTH BY REGIONS—1960 TO 2000

WEST NORTH CENTRAL

From 15.4 Million
To 25.9 Million

EAST NORTH CENTRAL

From 36.2 Million
To 75.4 Million

NEW ENGLAND

From 10.5 Million
To 17.2 Million

MIDDLE ATLANTIC

From 34.2 Million
To 59.4 Million

SOUTH ATLANTIC

From 26 Million
To 54.2 Million

EAST SOUTH CENTRAL

From 12 Million
To 17.5 Million

WEST SOUTH CENTRAL

From 17 Million
To 31.3 Million

MOUNTAIN

From 6.9 Million
To 16.2 Million

PACIFIC

From 21.2 Million
To 53.4 Million

TOTAL U.S.

From 179.3 Million
To 350.5 Million

Employees have an obvious and proper interest in the terms of their employment and the conditions under which they work. Through their organizations they may contribute substantially to the formulation, improvement, and orderly administration of these matters which so vitally affect them. It is our firm intention and policy to cooperate with the representatives of employee organizations with the goal in mind of making the Department a model employer and providing the conditions under which each employee will strive to be a conscientious and efficient public servant.*

*Orville L. Freeman, Secretary of Agriculture,
in Secretary's Memorandum No. 1486, issued
January 18, 1962

